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*Reading*

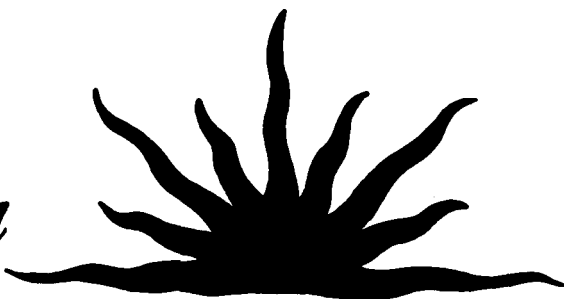
# HORIZONS



Fall 1975



# *Reading*



# **HORIZONS**

**VOLUME 16**

**NUMBER 1**

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*READING HORIZONS has been published quarterly since 1960 by the Reading Center and Clinic of Western Michigan University and the Homer L. J. Carter Reading Council, Michigan's oldest established IRA council. As a journal devoted to reading at all levels of educational endeavor, HORIZONS provides teachers, educators, and other interested professionals with the ideas, movements, and important changes in the ever increasing horizons of reading.*



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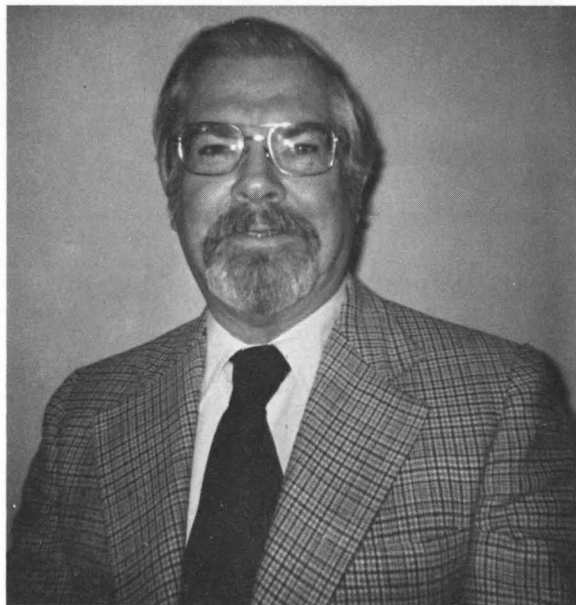
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## NEW EDITOR APPOINTED



READING HORIZONS is pleased to announce the appointment of Mr. Kenneth VanderMeulen to the editorship of the journal. Mr. VanderMeulen, who will be replacing past editor, Dr. Dorothy J. McGinnis, brings a wealth of teaching and writing experience to READING HORIZONS.

Mr. VanderMeulen has served 19 years as a principal, department chairman, English teacher, reading consultant and reading teacher in the secondary schools of Michigan and Illinois. His teaching experience has included working for Syracuse University and at an Idaho Boys Reformatory.

Besides the secondary column in READING HORIZONS, he has also published articles in the MEA Journal, the *Illinois School Research* journal and served as editor of the Hinsdale School System's *Public Relations Bulletin* for six years.

Mr. VanderMeulen, an assistant professor of Teacher Education at Western Michigan University, has been with the University's Reading Center and Clinic since 1970.







## REDEDICATION

There is usually no appropriate time for an editor to become personal with his readers. However, as the newly appointed editor of *READING HORIZONS*, I deem it necessary. Before I attempt to succeed her in the editor's chair, I wish to say that my respect and admiration for Dr. Dorothy McGinnis' many research and clinical contributions in the field of reading are of long standing; my greatest comfort now is the fact that Dr. McGinnis recommended me to succeed her. My efforts will be to prove that her faith is not wrongly placed.

There is, on the other hand, *no more* appropriate time for a brief pause – for all of us, to restructure the myriad problems we meet in the cosmos of reading. Then, we need to move forward again. A brief pause is all we can afford; to evaluate our progress, renew our pledge, get another “fix” on our decade goal, and test the ideas described by the experts. As reading still is the common denominator in education, our energies must still be spent in seeking the best ways of solving reading problems and helping to prevent reading problems from having their start in the classrooms.

Finally, we need to pause briefly at the beginning of an era, to rededicate ourselves to increased efficient communication of thought and theory in reading. To express such resolution when undertaking a new kind of work or beginning a job is traditional with all of us. Since the dawn of civilization man has been invoking unseen power to support him at the outset of any great challenge. Your editor, then, is behaving in a normal and conventional manner as he calls loudly in all directions for help, since value and utility in a quarterly such as *READING HORIZONS* can only result from the combined support of enthusiastic, interested readers.

Kenneth VanderMeulen  
Editor



# THE QUEST FOR COMPETENCY IN THE TEACHING OF READING: A LIBRARIAN'S POINT OF VIEW

*Jean Lowrie*

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Dr. Jean Lowrie is director of the School of Librarianship at Western Michigan University. She has also served as president of the American Library Association. The following speech, given by Dr. Lowrie at the Western Michigan University Reading Institute during 1974, views the field of librarianship and reading, highlighting how each relates to the other.*

I would like to do three things: first, share with you a picture of libraries as they are now developing programs and planning for tomorrow's needs; present some specific examples of library services which relate to reading needs; finally, explore some examples of today's reading materials which I hope you as reading specialists either know about or with which you will become familiar, and which you and your clientele can obtain through library collections.

First, let us talk about libraries today and tomorrow. You will note I am using the word libraries. Although most of you are oriented to a school library as a learning situation, I want to emphasize that all libraries can be of assistance to you, can relate to the needs of the learner. There are many kinds of libraries in today's society. We have the traditional school library which relates primarily to print materials (although there are few of these left anymore). We have the media center or learning resource center which in today's schools encompass all types of print and non-print media for pre-school through 12th grade students. There is the public library which contains special collections and gives service to children, young adults and adults, many of whom may not be too highly skilled in reading. Academic and special libraries are more limited in location and service. Nevertheless, the academic library program, which includes community and junior colleges as well as four year and university programs, can and does relate to the needs of a community's reading public. You yourselves are aware of the reference and research services available from academic libraries. Such services are important to you as you attempt to know more about the experiments being conducted on the teaching of reading, the theoretical essays, the reactions of the public and private schools, boards of education, etc., to the problems revolving around the teaching of reading.

The basic principle of librarianship today states firmly that patterns of service must be developed to meet the needs of the entire community. This means that public libraries must cooperate with school libraries and vice versa; that both of these must work with other agencies concerned about the needs of children and young adults.

Working papers by various groups within the American Library Association have been prepared recently which pull together many factors relating to library service. I would like to share with you those which seem to be most applicable to our discussion. Libraries today are attempting to devise opportunities which will: expand the knowledge of children and young adults; further their search for understanding of self and environment; satisfy the need for esthetic experience; develop their pride in their own heritage and an appreciation of other cultures; improve their ability to make critical judgments; help develop verbal, visual and aural communication skills.

A specific effort is made to ensure access by all patrons to information services including the diversity of media—print and non-print. Where there are pressures or difficulties which make access to the material difficult or impossible (e.g. physical handicaps, jobs or working hours, transportation, etc.) the library attempts to take the material to the users or potential users. Programs to stimulate interest in reading and the use of all types of media are encouraged. Opportunities to develop and use communication skills which will enhance enjoyment of life are organized. An atmosphere conducive to creative and informational pursuits of patrons with an awareness of the developmental need of children and young adults particularly is fostered.

In a user-oriented library, patrons should be able to choose which services they will use at any time in their lives. Among these services is the librarian's individual concern to identify specific information or recreational needs of a client. This is contiguous with his knowledge of the collection and his ability to select materials to meet these needs. Let me emphasize here that libraries and information science centers firmly support the premise of equal access to all. This means all media and all service as well as all peoples. Accordingly, program and collection are planned for all ages, all mental abilities, for physically handicapped, for anyone regardless of social characteristics, economic status, ethnic origin or religious belief. Furthermore, if the material needed to meet the individual requirements is not available within the specific library, interlibrary loans, regional networks for facsimile reproduction and now satellite relaying are all employed to bring to the user the specific material.

Within libraries, the selection policy should be flexible enough to reflect the changing interest and needs of contemporary children and youth, the pluralistic views of society, the diversity of the community. Consideration in a children's room in a public library, for instance, is given to the conceptional levels and capabilities of the young user. Continual evaluation is given to new material as well as to that already in the collection. A good library involves its patrons—children or adults—in selection of materials. It

maintains balance between reference and circulating materials, as these relate to the needs of a particular community. In addition, it is hoped that staff at all levels, paraprofessional, and professional, will be flexible, open, friendly and will respect clientele. Staff should be educated to meet the specialized needs of children, young adults, and adults. In addition, where a system is large, staff with expertise in working with functionally illiterate adults, with foreign speaking patrons, with culturally disadvantaged persons and similar groups, is employed.

In their efforts to meet and serve the user beyond the library's four walls, librarians work with academic, vocational and special education agencies. They will be found in recreational centers, churches, drug rehabilitation centers and coffee houses, in correctional institutions, homes for unwed mothers, mental centers and outdoors on the streets. They may be found in bookmobiles, in AV mobiles, with flower push carts/cum bookcarts. They will be in the heart of the metropolitan centers as well as on the side of the mountain in Appalachia—with Spanish speaking migrant children as well as with Native Americans on reservations.

Let me assure you that we recognize fully that libraries and librarians cannot be all things to all people, but they do have a responsibility to be aware of what is going on in the community and to give support where it is feasible.

I have gone into considerable detail here because I wanted you to realize the varied possibilities available to you as reading teachers and specialists—opportunities for materials to use in your teaching (formally or informally)—opportunities for you to use with your clientele. A library can relate to a reading program.

All of us are fully cognizant of the facts that a child will learn to read more easily if the material is relevant to his environment; if it relates to his emotional needs as well as being within his general vocabulary level. But to find the exact book or books for each child in the program you simply must have a library—a large collection of varying levels and interests in which both teacher and student can browse for the proper book. What applies to beginning reading also applies to continuing or lifetime reading. If there is not breadth of choice, then interest may be stifled. Many elementary children will enjoy a Dr. Seuss, Marguerite Henry's *Misty of Chincoteague* and an advanced book on space exploration, for example, all at the same time. As a variety in our adult reading is basic, so is it for the child's. Again, access to a library becomes a necessity.

Programs and activities which support your efforts can easily be coordinated into the library efforts. Storytelling, in the library, on the street corner, in the recreational area is a wonderful way to stimulate sharing through oral communication, followed by introductions to books which would be equally exciting, folk tales and short stories as well as "one thick story" (as one youngster described a fiction book).

Sharing of books read at home, in the classroom or in the library is basic and takes many forms -- through classroom experiences, reading festivals, library book discussion groups, etc. but the enthusiasm engendered by peer

interest is immeasurable. If he cannot share these experiences, he may well lose his enthusiasm. Furthermore, you can teach a child to read but if you do not give him the opportunity to read, to read for his own personal pleasure and information, he will soon stop. I'm talking of course, about the joys of losing oneself in a situation which becomes your own intimate experience; no one else ever has quite the same reaction or feeling of excitement or stimulation as you receive from your own reading experience.

As a teacher, you are the expert in techniques. No librarian would attempt to usurp this responsibility. But the librarian can be of real assistance to you in finding the right book for your purpose because it is her responsibility to know the content, the interest, the vocabulary level of the material in her collection. She may also know something about the child which can be shared with you to assist you in understanding him. Perhaps the very type of book constantly being asked for will indicate the problem which must be tackled. All of us know that emotional difficulties can be among the greatest stumbling blocks in the learning to read process. So, a youngster who continually asks for a certain type of story, in which one sibling boy or girl (his sex) appears to be the dominant or successful figure in the story, for example, may clue us in to a home situation, a developmental need that is being effected; the student who checks out books far beyond his word understanding in order to not be different from his peers is surely telling us something about his attitude toward reading as well as a psychological problem.

We often hear the thought expressed "I don't care what he's reading as long as he reads." With the proliferation of printed material available in libraries today, that is a poor rationalization. Well written stories at all levels of comprehension and about all kinds of people and situations are available. We do not need to resort to the poor comic book, the shabby paperback, the simplified classic or the Hollywood glamour type magazine.

Please do not misunderstand me. There is a place for cartoons; paperbacks are a boon in our inflation ridden society, and periodicals are invaluable, but there are good ones as well as inferior ones. Every one has many levels of interest sophistication, but it is not necessary to stay at the bottom interest-wise or from a literary point of view. Neither you nor I should encourage readers to do so.

Among the exciting experiments which are being carried on by libraries in support of reading programs are those in branch libraries in the inner city. Here collections in Spanish on a simple reading level are to be found. Practical books which can be taken home by parents who comprehend very little English or whose reading level is only second or third grade are easily accessible. Here you will find programs specifically developed for the functionally illiterate. Often, reading teachers work in the library (which actually might be in a bar or a beauty parlor) to help these patrons overcome the hurdles preventing them from getting a job. Or you may find the librarian taking a course in linguistics in order to be able to understand ghetto languages and vocabulary and thus relate to the community. One cannot help a person to read or find material if one cannot understand the

patron's needs in the first place.

Again, a library in the park which shows puppet theatre, encourages creative dramatics, fosters a pet show, distributes paperbacks, has a story hour with a magical piper as storyteller is a library which will entice children and adults to explore the possibilities within books.

A recent study conducted by a faculty member of WMU indicated that prisoners who can read will adjust much better to society upon release. This ties in directly with a strong movement to develop libraries in prisons and other institutions. We've all read "Hooked on Books". We all know that accessibility to media encourages usage. So teaching of reading to prisoners, for example, must be supported by broad library collections, extensive in topic coverage as well as vocabulary level.

Often an audio-visual or non-print piece of media will be the stimulant needed. Again, let me point out that your school media centers, your public libraries, your community college resource centers all have films, tapes, slides, recordings which introduce stories, relate to books, stimulate discussion. One marvelous example, of course, is the Weston Woods Picture Book Parade which has reproduced the exact picture book story and illustrations in all media forms (film, tape, strip recordings). Here is the best in children's picture books. Weston Woods is now moving into other excellent, longer stories for children. Artistically done, they appeal to all children regardless of background. "Sesame street" is another media with impact. A tremendous number of youngsters have had the opportunity to view this through their public library neighborhood branches, children who otherwise would never have had this experience. Such opportunities have had a direct effect on a child's ability to learn to read and interest in further reading.

You can connect with your librarian to see what kind of program, what kind of supportive activity you would like to have developed for your clientele—be it group or individual.

Last but not least, let me share with you some of the exciting books which are being enjoyed by children today—filling their aesthetic, emotional, cultural needs.

There are many excellent writers today who are exploring contemporary life styles in society, who are enjoying words and sounds through poetry, who are assisting in a better understanding of our "small, small world". I want to introduce some of these to you, and I want to remind you of some of our solid favorites of many years. I hope also to show you that easy to read material can be delightful, that sad stories have a place because they serve as a catharsis, that beautiful illustrations can stimulate ideas, concepts and a desire to read.

Among the easy and picture books which have been published over the last several decades are these old familiar and beautifully designed books—Wanda Gag's *ABC Bunny* and Robert McCloskey's *Make Way for Ducklings*. In both we have a simple story easily related to the experiences of the young listener—family relationships, letter and number concepts, sounds (like Jack, Lack, Mack and Quack, etc.), humor and excellent art.



What more could you want for children? They are perennial favorites. But may I also point out the gorgeous color and design in Brian Wildsmith books, the delightful stories from Switzerland which Selina Chonz has written, and the fantasy which delights as exemplified by Sendak's *Where The Wild Things Are*. These are not only good read aloud (or two lap books) for pre-reading; they continue to be loved and read by the children themselves after they have mastered the techniques of reading.

The easy reading materials which began with Dr. Seuss' *Cat in the Hat* have proliferated and many of them have developed real literary style at the easiest reading level. Even though we have only included two on the list (because of space!), I suggest that you explore this group with your librarian. There is no need to stick to unattractive or dull reading material at the beginning level—fun, adventure, simple homey experiences are all available. Just listen a minute to *Frog and Toad are Friends*. Five short delightful episodes, each a complete story, make this book a delight to the youngster with a short interest span, one who wants a book with "real chapters".

I am sure you are all acquainted with the excellent work of Ezra Jack Keats, [*Snowy Day*, *Whistle for Willie*] and here is *Pet Show*. Because Archie's cat was missing, he decided to take a germ in a bottle which on the spur of the moment was named Al. As you can well imagine, this stumped the judges—but only for a moment! "A blue ribbon for Al, the quietest pet in the show!" Marvelous color—good picture of life in a black community, a charming bit of generosity on Archie's part which is not too obviously didactic, simple vocabulary—all of this makes this story another one of Keats' excellent contributions in the area of interpersonal relationships for young readers.

In this same section, let me point out Blue's *A Quiet Place*, the story of a black foster child (9 years old), and Gray's *Send Wendell*, a youngest child (6 years old) who always gets sent on errands by his older brothers and sisters until he rebels; both good pictures of family relationships as well as black characters.

Moving to other minority groups and still for the younger readers, we have Miles' *Annie and the Old Man* and McDermott's *Arrow to the Sun* (add to your list). In the former, the simple tale relates the problems of a young Navajo girl who must cope with understanding that the Old One (grandmother) will not always be with her. This is a wise and poignant story. Annie tries to prevent the time when her grandmother would return to Mother Earth by unravelling the weaving done during the day, but her grandmother's quiet wisdom finally helps her to understand. A useful book from several points of view; family love, American Indian background, and a dignified way of presenting death.

*Arrow to the Sun* is just off the press and is gorgeously breathtaking in its color and design. It is a Pueblo Indian tale, a retelling of the universal myth of the hero's quest. "Long ago the Lord of the Sun sent the spark of life to earth"; so begins the tale of how the spirit of the Lord of the sun was brought to the world of men.

Folklore material has been with us since man first began to tell stories and share experiences. We have many beautiful editions of collections and of individual stories. Many of these titles are in paperback as well as hardback. (When choosing paperback, be sure the editors have retained the original illustrations and literary styles. There is no reason to accept poor quality.) A good example is H.C. Andersen's *The Ugly Duckling* with Adrienne Adams' delightful illustrations. As with all folk tales, there is a moral, even as there is in Sendak's delightful *King Grisly Beard* where the charming illustrations proclaim the reader to be a participant in the "theatre". Indeed, there are meanings which children understand albeit unconsciously in most folk literature. This point does not need laboring. The reader comprehends when he is ready. The great truths of humanity will be found in these tales, both the familiar ones and the new collections from Africa, Israel, and the Far East. Taste them yourselves and savor the knowledge of the ages. Share them with your children and let them browse in them by themselves. Courlander, the great collector of African tales, has said it clearly. "Moral values are basically the same and the human species is one species and (that) any racial and cultural subdivisions are merely subdivisions. Customs and traditions are developed as particularized human responses to deal with environmental and other realities. The basic needs are similar in every environment and the human mind works essentially the same way."<sup>1</sup>

A quick look at poetry books reminds us that here is a read-aloud literary genre with a wide reaching public. Long before children can read, they enjoy Mother Goose rhymes and simple nonsense poetry. Sound, rhythm, new words and word pictures are all important aspects of learning to read as you know it. Don't be frightened by poetry. Use it. Enjoy it. John Ciardi's delightful relevant nonsense. Carl Sandberg's humor, rolling cadences and love of America, for older children are but two examples of poetic refreshment.

Fiction, of course, is a constant source of pleasure. There are so many kinds of fiction today, stories of fantasy, stories of problems, stories of history, for all ages of readers. Find the titles that may have meaning for you or that may have meaning for your clientele whether they are beginning readers, readers with problems about life, or readers with sophisticated backgrounds. There's something for each.

I want to refer first to two modern stories with different life styles, the Cleavers' *Where the Lilies Bloom* and Hildick's *Kids Commune*. Perhaps some of you have had the pleasure of seeing the film which Radnitz has just produced of "Where the Lilies Bloom". It follows the story quite closely and can be used as an excellent introduction to this book as well as other Cleaver works. Theirs are the stories of strong Appalachian families who are resourceful and worth knowing. *Where the Lilies Bloom* presents a good picture of wildcrafting, i.e., the gathering of medicinal plants, herbs which

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<sup>1</sup>Wolkstein, Diane. "An Interview with Harold Courlander." *LIBRARY JOURNAL*. XCIX (May 15, 1974.) p. 1437-40.

grow on the slopes of the Great Smokies; but it also is a strong, humorous, yet sad story of four children left without their parents who manage to survive by their wits.

*Kids Commune* is a rollicking tale of a group of youngsters who rebel against parental tyranny, being sent out of a party celebrating their new summer home because they were in the adults' way. They set up "Amerika First Kids Commune" although the experiment almost ended in tragedy; the "Bill of Rights" was mutually acceptable and both groups learned a lesson.

Completely different is Lynd Ward's *The Silver Pony*, a story in pictures for all ages. This is a stunning book of black and white lithographs and you obviously will have to read it for yourselves. Here is a young boy whose imaginative world is wider than his real farm one. With the help of a winged pony, he learns some things about people in other places—the blacks, the city dwellers, the Indians, war. A simple story that speaks to each individual in a special way.

Now to conclude. Two works of fantasy which every child should have the opportunity of enjoying, either read aloud or read to oneself. Fantasy is one of the special experiences which can come through reading. It is not merely escape literature, but more often a new way to better understand the problems of living. I suspect many of you will remember escaping with Alice and the white Rabbit, or perhaps identifying with the Borrowers or Mary Poppins. As adults, you may have succumbed to the land of the *Hobbits* and Tolkien's marvelous trilogy of *The Rings*.

And speaking of Tolkien, let me introduce you to Alexander and his cycle of the five books of Prydain. One of the best examples of modern fantasy writing for children and by an American author. *The Book of Three*, *The Black Cauldron*, *The Castle of Lyr*, *Taran*, and *The High King* constitute a tale of struggle between good and evil with Taran, assistant pig keeper and would be hero as the protagonist. Alexander has created an entire geography for this series and a philosophy of life which young readers will understand. Much of this is based on the great Welsh legends in the Mabinogia, and like such tales, there is strength, mysticism, tragedy and happiness. "Long ago I yearned to be a hero without knowing in truth, what a hero was. Now, perhaps, I understand it a little better." A grower of turnips or a shaper of clay, a common farmer or a king—every man is a hero if he strives more for others than for himself alone. "Once," he added, "you told me that the seeking counts more than the finding. So, too, must the striving count more than the gain," said Taran.

Last but not least is that eternally significant story of Kenneth Grahame's *The Wind in the Willows*. This wonderful tale of the animals who live in the River and in the Wild Wood, whose lives are always true to animal behaviorism and yet who symbolize so much that is human is a literary masterpiece. It is fantasy for all ages. It speaks anew to each generation.

This is really touching only the tip of the iceberg, but I hope you will go on from here. I hope most of all that you will see that helping people to

attain competency in reading can be a rewarding experience for the reading teacher and the librarian because we have so much to share.

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**UNCONDITIONAL MONEY-BACK GUARANTEE**

# EVALUATING PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS OF READING IN CBTE

*Richard Allington*

STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT ALBANY

Competency based teacher education (CBTE) curricula are being considered or developed by at least half of the state education departments according to a survey by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (Andrews, 1972).<sup>1</sup> Coupled with this is the development of an increasing number of competency based reading methods courses and curricula. Those working on the development of these programs, quickly become aware of the problems encountered when attempting to combine theory and practice. Solving problems of identifying competencies, time-based curricula, grading, faculty teaching load, etc., at times seems overwhelming. However, a single issue in CBTE involves each area mentioned above and is yet unique in itself. That is, "How does one assess competence?"

## *What kind of competence?*

Defining curricula to produce competent teachers of reading must begin with an identification of the skills a competent teacher of reading possesses. This is followed by determining how and if these skills can be developed in the teacher training institution. Traditionally, the education of the pre-service teacher of reading has focused on the knowledge aspect of teaching reading. Assessment was primarily of the paper-pencil format. Whether this assessment technique had any validity in predicting the ability the student might have in teaching reading was seldom, if ever, established. Assessment of teaching ability was left to the student teaching supervisor. Thus, those paid to train teachers of reading seldom knew if their efforts were successful. In theory, the well-developed CBTE curriculum would provide the teacher-trainer with an opportunity to assess competence in the field (Andrews, 1973).<sup>2</sup> Opportunity may be an inaccurate term, for in 'pure' terms, teaching competence must necessarily be field assessed. However, each competency in a CBTE curriculum, while relating to eventual teaching success, need not necessarily involve field assessment.

## *Cognitive assessment.*

A CBTE curriculum can follow many paths for developing specific competencies to be attained. The simplest path requires little change from the traditional format. Those charged with the responsibility of training teachers of reading can construct objectives requiring only the mastery of

factual information. This path requires only that the teacher-trainer specify precisely what the student is to know. Assessment follows by having the student list, choose, describe, or discuss facts, names, techniques, etc. Once developed, these objectives and assessment techniques at least offer the teacher-trainer an opportunity to observe what students know about the teaching of reading. Still lacking, however, is assessment of the proficiency in teaching reading.

Assessment at the cognitive level is a necessary component of a CBTE curriculum. There is certain factual knowledge students need to grasp prior to application. However, a curriculum that assesses only cognitive mastery and omits the assessment of application of that knowledge is far from the ideal CBTE program. Students who can list, describe, and discuss will not necessarily have the ability to successfully apply the methods, techniques, and principles in a field setting.

#### *Experience assessment.*

A second level for CBTE curricula involves requiring students to experience, or participate in the teaching of reading in conjunction with learning at the cognitive level. Students are placed in classrooms to observe and often tutor children in reading. Assessment may involve only attendance; if a student is present on assigned dates he has mastered the objectives. Assessment may alternatively come from a cooperating teacher, or the student might keep a cumulative log listing daily lessons and submit this for assessment. These approaches to assessing competence still isolate the teacher-trainer from actual assessment of teaching skill. An evaluation of ability to teach reading is still second hand, at best.

A primary issue in CBTE centers on a third approach to the assessment of competence. If teacher training institutions are graduating prospective teachers, who are in turn issued teaching certificates, someone evidently assumes teaching competence. However, as mentioned earlier, in most cases the teacher-trainer is isolated from a direct assessment of teaching competence. The direct assessment issue presents problems which are not easily handled in the present teacher training model.

#### *Direct assessment.*

Many of the problems encountered in the development of a field based component deal with the administrative structure of universities (Lorraine and Daniels, 1972).<sup>4</sup> Once these problems are worked out the development of the field-based component can begin. The teacher-trainer might, for instance, have the responsibility for eight pre-service teachers and be provided with eight classrooms of elementary school children. Each classroom would be staffed with an experienced teacher who had demonstrated competence in teaching reading, as well as completed in-service training directed at the evaluation of pre-service teachers. The pre-service teachers would have completed a course in reading methods with finalization of requirements entailing the demonstration of teaching

competence in reading.

Here, however, one is faced with the persistent question of, "What constitutes evidence of a successful demonstration of teaching competence?" If the reading methods course received, focused on knowing about reading, the teacher-trainer may be on shaky ground to assume a transfer effect. Knowing about basal readers, or even basal reader lessons, is not equivalent to being able to effectively employ these materials or methods. Likewise, knowing about sight word lists, structural analysis, context, or main idea is not equivalent to ability to teach the same. Even more complicated than being able to teach these skills, is knowing when to teach them.

Thus, the teacher-trainer may have to begin by modeling, or by providing a model, of exemplary teaching. Someone somewhere must demonstrate what will be considered as competence. Cognitive knowledge from a classroom-based learning experience does not automatically transfer, even when the teaching of reading is taught, as opposed to the history of reading instruction, or an introduction to reading materials. If we are to develop teaching competence, something more than the traditional survey course will necessarily be involved.

The ideal background course(s) would provide not only a survey of materials and historical data, but also include audio- or video-tapes of teaching performances. These would include a wide range of skills, styles, and techniques. The student would arrive at the field-based component with a strong background of experiences. Having had opportunities for simulation in decision making, role playing in teaching techniques, as well as a store of cognitive data on history, theory, methods, and materials. The task is now to place the student in the teaching role with children. A field-based component would provide the opportunity for the student to select pupils and present them with short teaching episodes. Though the student has been provided with a demonstration course the teacher-trainer may yet be aghast at some teaching performances and wonder how certain students successfully completed the foundation course. In light of the evaluation, the student may be informed that competence is yet to be established. This leads the student to the teacher-trainer in quest of the reasons for failure. The teacher-trainer must have well defined criteria for the successful completion of a teaching episode. Ambiguous, or nebulous criteria for defining mastery fail to identify deficiencies and strengths. Without these criteria deficiencies persist without remediation. Assessment must provide more than pass/fail information. It must be more than a simple detailing of what occurred. Assessment must provide both the student and the teacher-trainer with specific information concerning what needs to be added, deleted, or changed.

Without well defined and readily available criteria, student learning will be impaired. If competence is not established on the first attempt, remediation, in the form of a well defined critique, needs to be provided. Coupled with this data, suggestions for improvement and perhaps modeling of more precise teaching may be needed.

The task facing the teacher-trainer becomes more difficult. Assessment is not now based on a computer scored sheet. More intense study will not necessarily make the teaching performance more successful. Further, the teacher-trainer is generally presented with a face-to-face assessment. Suddenly, it becomes difficult to treat the failing student as an impersonal number, or face. In order to develop competence the teacher-trainer must have the ability to isolate which variables are present and which are missing. The teacher-trainer becomes a diagnostician, identifying strengths and weaknesses in his students. He becomes a remediator, providing the support necessary to produce competence (Wiersma and Dickson, 1973).<sup>5</sup>

Evaluation in a CBTE curriculum should focus on developing each student's teaching skill. Assessment is not intended to classify students into various levels of competence. Summative evaluation is traditional in teacher education. CBTE programs require formative evaluations (Jones, 1972).<sup>3</sup> Each student evaluation should inform the student of strengths and weaknesses. This provides both the teacher-trainer and the student with data on which to base decisions for future learning.

### Summary

Competence comes in many forms. While CBTE curricula are being developed nationwide, many are at the lowest level on the competency based continuum. To produce teaching competence will require developing curricula that go beyond learning about reading. Assessing teaching competence can be accomplished but it is by no means simply a matter of placing students in the field. Someone must rigorously define criteria for competence and observe whether that criteria is met. Assessment must be provided and that assessment must be of a formative nature.

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# This Year

in



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**Christmas 1975**—Hawaiian Seminar  
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# FOUR STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING READING IN CONTENT AREAS

**R. Baird Shuman**

DUKE UNIVERSITY

Despite all that has been written about the teaching of reading in the content areas, and despite the existence of books such as Herber's *Teaching Reading in Content Areas* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1970), Laffey's *Reading in the Content Areas* (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1972), and Robinson and Thomas' *Fusing Reading Skills and Content* (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969), most secondary school teachers in the content areas still feel inadequate to teach reading and, even though they acknowledge the existence of a substantial reading program among their students, they do not know how to go about dealing with the problem.

As more and more states enact legislation requiring that all public school teachers, regardless of subject or teaching level, have formal training in reading, the problem is being more adequately dealt with. However, the fact remains that many of today's high school teachers know little or nothing about reading instruction and go on, year in and year out, teaching subject matter which their students cannot handle from textbooks that their youngsters cannot read efficiently. The results are often quite devastating, the loss in time and effort monumental.

Paul Rosewell claims that "the foci of the instructional reading study . . . appear to be *evaluating reading competency, diagnosing reading difficulties, prescribing study techniques to alleviate problems and ineffective procedures, and promoting enriched reading opportunities*."<sup>1</sup> Rosewell continues, "The major concern of the classroom teacher becomes one of identifying reading skills needed or appropriate to the subject-matter field as well as techniques of motivating and providing purpose to reading."

Before the teacher can begin to teach his subject matter effectively, he must be sure that the reading materials he is using are not beyond the ability of his students to handle them. Two basic techniques, the quick assessment and the cloze procedure, can be employed in making this determination.

## *Quick Assessment Tests*

Quick assessment tests such as the San Diego Quick Assessment are not difficult to construct and can be used to provide the teacher with a rough idea of a student's reading level within the subject area. The San Diego Quick Assessment Test<sup>2</sup> consists of eleven ten-word lists, one for each grade from one through eleven. The student is given each list in sequence and asked to read it. If he misses no more than one word, he is deemed capable

of reading independently at that level. If he misses two words, this is probably his instruction level. If he misses three or more words, the material at this level and beyond is probably beyond his reading ability.

It must be cautioned that quick assessment tests are only meant to give general indications of the level at which a student might be reading. They are neither precise nor 100% accurate. But they can be helpful early in a school year for the teacher who wants a general indication of students' reading abilities. Where accurate IQ scores are also available, the teacher can use the following equation<sup>3</sup> to give a further insight into where a student might be expected to be reading:

$$\frac{\text{IQ}}{\text{Number of years in school}} \times \frac{100}{100} + .1$$

Using this equation, a student entering tenth grade and having an IQ of 120 should be reading at the 11.8 level and a similar student with an IQ of 90 should be reading around the 9.1 level. It must be remembered, however, that not all students will be reading at or even close to the *anticipated* level. This formula, used in conjunction with a quick assessment test, can provide the teacher with a basis for helping the student by finding reading materials which he would be likely to handle adequately.

In making up a quick assessment test within a content area, the teacher need not start at grade one and go through grade eleven. Probably four or five lists of words common to the subject and compiled in an ascending order of difficulty would be adequate for most situations. The words should be drawn from typical reading materials in the specified content area, but the materials should cover a broad range of ability levels.

### *The Cloze Procedure*

If students are not performing at the anticipated level in any of the content areas, the teacher should immediately suspect that the difficulty lies within the reading materials being used. The *cloze procedure* enables the teacher to test with relative accuracy the appropriateness of the reading material for any student who is experiencing difficulty.

All the teacher has to do is select three or four passages of about 300 words each from the texts being used. Each passage should contain related ideas and should be somewhat independent of what has gone before it. The teacher reproduces the passage, replacing every tenth word with a ten space blank. The student is then asked to fill in the blanks. his answers *must be exact*. Synonyms, different tenses of verbs, etc. are counted as incorrect. If he scores at 50%, the material is considered appropriate for him; that is, it is neither so difficult as to frustrate him nor so easy as to bore him. Students scoring above 70% could be handling more difficult material and the teacher might consider giving them more advanced texts.

Jones and Pilulski<sup>4</sup> suggest that "to provide an orientation to the context of the passage, the first sentence and the last [be] left intact." The teacher should not try to reach any conclusions from *individual* scores on cloze tests; it is the average of three or four scores that is significant. Cloze tests probably should be administered to whole classes early in every term. It is

probably best to give no more than one cloze test on a given day and to allow 10-12 minutes for each one.<sup>5</sup>

### *Teaching Connectives*

Writers in various content areas employ styles of writing appropriate to their areas. The mathematician does not use the style and vocabulary of, let us say, the historian or the zoologist. For this reason, it is difficult for anyone outside a given area to teach reading based on materials from that content area.

Of late, considerable attention has been paid to the correlation between a student's understanding of connectives and his ability to read effectively within a specified subject area.<sup>6</sup> It has been pointed out by Rodgers particularly that each subject area has its own frequency list of connectives, biology, and physics. Following his lead, teachers in other content areas can make up frequency lists of connectives used in their disciplines and they can then make sure that their students are instructed in the meanings of these connectives.

### *Impedilexae*

Farther ranging than Rodgers' frequency list of connectives are Robert C. Aukerman's excellent lists of words in various content areas which are likely to cause difficulty for students.<sup>7</sup> Aukerman provides lists for social studies, English, science, mathematics, business, industrial arts, vocational education and home economics. It would be nice to think that every teacher in today's secondary schools might have access to a copy of Aukerman's book because his practical approach to teaching reading would be of substantial benefit to almost any teacher.

Teachers in subject areas not dealt with among Aukerman's lists of *impedilexae* can construct their own lists based upon what Aukerman has done. Teachers can also add to Aukerman's lists, basing their additions on the texts which they are actually using.

### *Afterword*

Probably the single factor which most determines a student's success or failure in secondary school is his ability to read. Because reading is such a complex area of instruction and because so much about the dynamics of learning to read still remains so misunderstood, the challenge is a school-wide one. Only by enlisting the aid of every teacher in the school, can one hope to meet the problem. And the first step toward meeting the problem comes from making sure that every teacher in every subject area has some basic means of providing positive instruction in reading within his subject area.

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# MAKING A DENT IN THE CONTENT: READING THAT IS

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In 1954 Rudolf Flesch wrote a book published by Harper and Brothers that caused an upheaval in homes and public schools throughout America. His book *Why Johnny Can't Read* is referred to as an angry book by an aroused parent. The conclusion drawn by Dr. Flesch as to why Johnny can't read is that "nobody ever showed him how" (Flesch, 1965, p. 2).

Twenty-one years later one continues to hear, especially from content area teachers at all levels of instruction, that there are Johnnies in their classrooms who still cannot read. One also hears from the same group the aged old story of "Passing the Buck" or "Blame, Blame – Who's to Blame: the one in which college and university teachers blame high school teachers; teachers in high school blame teachers in junior high school, and so on down the educational ladder until the kindergarten teachers are left to blame the parents and the parents are left to blame each other's family.

So paramount is the reading problem that reading has come to be regarded as one of the highest priority areas in modern education. During his administration, former President Richard M. Nixon declared war on illiteracy by establishing a national "Right to Read" campaign. As outgrowths of the campaign federal, state, and local governments poured millions of dollars into reading programs throughout the country. Reading laboratories were established, special reading teachers were employed, and voluntary and paid paraprofessionals were used in an effort to combat, correct, and eradicate reading difficulties. In the schools, most of these efforts have been concentrated in the "formalized" reading area. A cursory review of the literature reveals that very little has been done by content area teachers to reinforce, to expand, or to teach the reading of content books. "Pervading the literature is the feeling that content teachers just do not understand—they are ignorant of—what they can and should do for students" (Herber, 1970, p. 9). They have rejected the cliché that "every teacher is a teacher of reading" and have come to believe that the teaching of reading is the responsibility of elementary school teachers and special reading teachers (Herber, 1970). This belief is also prevalent among many middle and upper grade elementary school teachers and is practiced to the extent that they regard reading as a specific subject to be taught at a specific time of the day and from a specific book.

For many years basic reading problems have been the focus of much educational research. Children have been graded, non-graded, grouped,

re-grouped, tracked, and leveled for reading instruction, yet content area teachers are still dissatisfied with the reading skills of their students. Causes for dissatisfactions are many and varied. The lack of reading skills exhibited by students in content area courses may well be in part the results of a lack of involvement by all school teachers in reading instruction, and "the assumption that teaching the content of a subject and teaching the skills that are related to the subject are somehow separate entities" (Herber, 1970, p. 6). According to R. Baird Shuman (1975, p. 2), the lack of involvement by school teachers in reading instruction is not because teachers of content area "do not have a genuine desire to enhance their student's academic achievements," but because "teaching one to read effectively . . . involves such a sophisticated learning process that most teachers consider themselves inadequate to deal with the task." Likewise, Harold L. Herber (1970, p. 6) states that: "Research evidence shows that reading and study skills related to a course need not be taught in isolation, as an appendage to the curriculum. Skills can be taught simultaneously with the course content; content and process need not be separated." The fact of the matter is, then, that the content area teacher who has a thorough knowledge of his content area might be better equipped to teach reading in his content area than many of the reading teachers upon whom the burden now rests who have had no specialized training in the specific content area and, in many cases, have had no specialized training in the teaching of reading.

### *Questions to Build Confidence*

Seemingly, many school teachers of content areas fail to teach reading in their area of specialization because they lack confidence. Therefore, it is being suggested that teachers of content areas, instead of playing "Pass The Buck" or "Blame, Blame—Who's to Blame" and instead of making rationalizations for not teaching reading in the content areas, ask themselves the following questions: (1) Can I read? (2) Do I comprehend what I read? (3) Do I have a thorough knowledge and understanding of my subject area? (4) Can I explain successfully to pupils the content of my area of specialization? (5) Do I know how to study? (6) Do I possess a specialized vocabulary in my subject area? (7) Can I, phonetically and/or structurally, attack words? If these questions can be answered in the affirmative by teachers of content areas, then they should be able to teach reading in the area of their specialization.

### *Let's Begin*

Bernice Leary (1947, p. 13) writes "Reading is not a thing to be considered apart from education." The writer would add to that statement, or to be taught in isolation for fifty-five minutes per day by a reading teacher as a single subject and then forgotten until the next reading period. Instead, "teaching a child to read . . . requires a program that is long enough to train him to read many different kinds of materials for many different purposes" (Leary, 1947, p. 13). This being the case, content subjects provide an ideal place to begin, since research clearly reveals that

various content subjects involve markedly different vocabularies, concepts, organizations, and purposes.

Paul Rosewell (1973, p. 26) challenged all teachers to assume the responsibility for "evaluating reading competency, diagnosing reading difficulties, prescribing study techniques to alleviate problems and ineffective procedures, and promoting enriched reading opportunities." R. Baird Shuman (1975, p. 2) added to Rosewell's challenge the responsibility of each teacher "to devise alternative learning methods within content areas so that the non-reader or severely disabled reader can be exposed to the content of the course despite his disability."

Dispel the myth that reading is a separate subject to be taught by only the reading teacher or the English teacher or for a certain period of the day from a particular book. Forget the thoughts of not knowing anything about phonetic analysis, structural analysis, building and teaching vocabulary skills, comprehension skills, and study skills. In lieu of these, think of pupils who may need continuing help in order to cope with the more complex materials and reading approaches as they advance through the grades. Think of the language of the subject—the technical vocabulary—and of how pupils must adjust their language and reading ability to meet the demands placed upon them by this vocabulary. Remember, "until a student has facility with that language, he cannot communicate any ideas essential to the subject" (Herber, 1970, p. 194). The language of any subject, then, should become the focus point. By zeroing in on the language, many advantages may be realized including: (1) Word analysis, word recognition, and word meaning can be developed within a meaningful context; (2) pupils may develop an understanding of and competence with skills that will enable them to add to their vocabulary independently; (3) as skills are developed an understanding of basic concepts are presented by words to which skills are applied. In essence, the technical vocabulary developed can and should become a continuation of teaching skills and course content simultaneously (Herber, 1970).

### *Branching Out*

Reading in the content areas generally encompasses the areas of literature, mathematics, the sciences, and the social studies. Therefore, the reading material in content areas is best understood by the content teacher, the reading specialist or the teacher of English, who may have been charged with this added responsibility, is clearly not the one to offer the most effective direction to reading in the subject-matter area (Rosewell, 1973). Moreover, to expect a utopia with regard to equipping unskilled readers to read content material in each of these areas, without assistance from the content teachers, might be like the Cinderella fairy tale—wishful thinking. It is unskilled readers whose reading skills and abilities need whetting, extending, and reinforcing.

Assuming that the content area teacher is now ready to "branch out" and become involved in content area reading, the question might be how. Because of space limitations and because the literature is replete with



articles, books, and other materials pertaining to teaching reading in the content areas, it is not possible or feasible to go into great detail here. However, some general suggestions have been included that might prove helpful to the subject area teacher who wants to make a dent in teaching reading in the content area.

Beyond teaching the language of the subject, the content area teacher should also teach the purposes, organization, and specialized vocabularies of the subject as well as give help in reading rate adjustment, concept development, and in understanding of assignments.

### *Mr. and Ms. Content Teachers*

First, it might be "helpful to think of reading study skills as those skills that form an integral part of the reading process, but that are used especially when application of the content is desired" (Smith, 1963, p. 307). Second, with this in mind, reflect upon the purposes of your particular subject-matter area. Mr. and Ms. Social Studies Teachers, it would appear that one of the primary purposes of social studies is to provide pupils with the knowledge and skills for acquiring information which will be needed throughout life as a functioning member of society. Mr. and Ms. Science Teachers, would not the purposes of your subject area be to help pupils obtain facts, acquire understanding of data, and develop scientific attitudes, appreciations, and interests? Mr. and Ms. Mathematics Teachers, is not the purpose of mathematics to teach pupils to reason, to estimate and compute, and to understand and be proficient with the concepts, ideas, and meanings of mathematics? And, Mr. and Ms. Literature Teachers, since "literature is usually considered to be a body of writings belonging to a people which includes their legends, myths, experiences, beliefs, values, and aspirations," (Shepherd, 1973, p. 173) would not its purpose really be to introduce the pupils to this mythos—to the evolving values of the culture to which they belong—rather than merely to teach the characteristics or genre?

Needless to say, in different subject areas pupils must read different materials for different purposes. The pupil who attempts to read his mathematics or science text at the same rate or in the same manner as he reads a novel for pleasure might discover serious comprehension difficulties. The rate of reading should be adjusted to the difficulty of the material and to the demands placed upon the pupil by the content area teacher. It is of utmost importance that the subject area teacher help the pupil to understand the concepts that he will be reading about and lead him to a state of readiness to grasp these concepts by drawing upon his experiences and helping him to decode the printed page. Similarly, a vocabulary peculiar to the subject area being taught must be introduced and explained within the context of the subject. For example, the word "product" in mathematics and the word "product" in social studies might have entirely different meanings. Lessons should be organized in such a manner as to provide for the varying abilities of members of the class. Likewise, assignments should be made, not in broad sweeping generalizations, but, rather, concisely and

with the type of guidance that will foster a conscious understanding of the reading process that will lead pupils to successful comprehension (Harris, 1973).

Admittedly, this might not be an easy task for the content area teacher but, according to Bernice Leary, neither is it any light matter for students "to convert into meaning the language of mathematics, science, literature, and the social studies; to maintain a critical attitude toward what is read; to develop the habit of relating written expression to one's own experiences; and to adjust reading abilities to different materials by grasping the author's intent, his use of words, and his style of writing, and by defining clearly one's own reading purposes (Leary, 1947, p. 10). Moreover, if the task is to be made easy without sacrificing its educational value, why not make it easy for the pupils? After all, is it not our job and aim to teach pupils rather than books? Also, in an endeavor to advance reading within the content area, subject-area teachers are hereby called upon to explore and search the literature in order to ascertain what has been and what can be done. The following references might prove of value: Harold L. Herber, *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*, Prentice-Hall, 1970; *Improving Reading in Content Fields*, compiled and edited by William S. Gray, University of Chicago Press, 1947; David L. Shepherd, *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods*, Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1973; and the December 1973 edition of *Clearing House*. These are just four of the many sources readily available on reading in the content areas. Because of the vast amount of information and suggestions now available, a challenge is being presented to you, Mr. and Ms. Teachers of content area subjects, to make a dent in Content – Reading, that is.

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# USING THE CHILD'S ORAL LANGUAGE IN BEGINNING READING INSTRUCTION

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Reading should be considered a continuation of the language acquisition process and as such the early reading instruction, including pre-reading literary experiences, must build upon the language acquired in the pre-school years. As with oral language, in reading also, the child must discover the theory of his language and he must do so with relatively small amounts of data about his language. In the process of acquiring oral language in the pre-school years, the child must mimic, try out, and accept or reject his new information. In reading, the process is the same except that the learning may be structured by the teacher so the child makes fewer mistakes and may be led to the acceptance of new generalizations with greater efficiency than with oral language learning. Some means by which this may be achieved will be discussed. However, a brief review of the language acquisition which has taken place prior to kindergarten will be presented first.

## *Pre-School Language Learning*

A fact to be considered paramount by all those who teach language skills to children is that oral language is *the* language; other language skills such as reading and writing must be based upon the child's oral language.

By the time the child has reached four years, he can produce all but four or five sounds; these sounds (represented in writing by r, l, th, wh, and tl) are mastered by most children by age six or seven, but some children are unable to produce one or more of them until age eight. What the child acquires takes place through informal auditory learning whereby the child gradually develops the ability to discriminate the gross sounds and then through continued listening and speaking works these gross sounds to finer and finer discriminations until he can both hear and produce the sounds. It should be noted, however, that the child can auditorily discriminate many sounds which he cannot orally produce.

Between a year and a half and five years of age, listening and speaking vocabularies expand greatly. Although the research is not in total agreement, evidence suggests that upon entrance to first grade the child can listen to and understand between 10,000 and 25,000 different words. That

same child can speak between 2,000 and 15,000 different words. Even if these figures were cut in half, the child's stock of words—his internal dictionary—is still tremendously large. It is so large, that very rarely in reading, writing, or spelling instruction will he encounter a word that he does not speak.

Concurrent with phonological development and the acquisition of listening and speaking vocabularies is the development of word arrangements or syntax. A child's knowledge of syntax takes longer to develop, however. The child's first effort at sentence construction result in what is often referred to as telegraphic speech. In telegraphic speech the child leaves out words, usually the least important words; thus, "Mommy is driving the car," becomes "Mommy drive car," for the two-year-old child. Word order and content words are maintained and words omitted are usually structure words. Meaning is conveyed, however, and the child is communicating in every sense.

As the child is able to synthesize his knowledge of vocabulary and his ability to arrange words properly he develops a knowledge of grammar. Knowledge of grammar develops rapidly also. So rapidly, that according to Gleason (1969) "by the age of thirty-six months many children can produce all of the major English sentences up to about ten words in length." The development of syntax does continue to develop after the age of thirty-six months, of course, but for most children the correct use of *their* grammar is mastered by five or six years of age. Refinements continue to take place usually through the seventh year although the evidence now indicates that several aspects of syntax may not be learned until eight or nine years of age, or even later.

#### *Helping the Child Establish a Match Between Oral and Written Language.*

The language the child encounters in books is "often not a written version of speech patterns the child already knows (Cazden, 1972)." One of the best means of helping children acquire the "match" between their oral language and book language is to have the child listen to stories read out loud.

The reading of stories to children should begin in the first week of kindergarten, probably the first day. The stories, of course, should be about interesting topics using words already familiar to the child. By listening to stories told by the skillful storyteller the child will learn that book language is in many respects more efficient. There is little redundancy since the words are arranged so as to convey the meaning of the story without repetition which is common in the oral language. This type of pre-reading literary experience will enhance early reading achievement.

Sometime later the child will learn that while book language has the disadvantage of less redundancy and lacks the inflections of speech, it does have the advantage of allowing for reflection and re-reading.

A comment about kindergarten instruction is appropriate here. From a language development point of view, kindergarten is extremely important. Not just because the child is offered new people with whom to com-

municate, but also because he begins to learn about and use the language of formal instruction and the school. And because language is used to provide structure to events, structure that he may not have encountered in his home.

### *Using the Child's Oral Vocabulary in Establishing a Beginning Reading Vocabulary*

The child's listening and speaking vocabularies are so broad even if he's disadvantaged that it may be difficult to know which words to introduce first. This selection may be determined by 1) choosing those words that interest him, these are usually content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives), and 2) by choosing words he needs to learn very early, the structure words.

Through dictation to his teacher, the child may express his thoughts in his words and these words may become the words he learns to read. Where this becomes a total approach to the teaching of reading it is known as the language-experience approach.

However, for those teachers who use some other approach, there is no reason why stories created by the child cannot occasionally be used for reading instruction. And the child's language is usually much more diverse than that he encounters in his early books.

It should be emphasized that the written word should not replace the child's oral language activities and the beginning reader should be allowed continued daily opportunities to talk to his peers. This opportunity for talking allows for continued oral language development and it allows the teacher to observe the child's language and note problems in articulation and usage. The teacher should be aware of what the child says and how it compares to published reading materials.

Another concern in the selection of the beginning reading vocabulary is the degree to which the ability to read a word or words will aid the child in the learning of new words. The child will learn a number of words by memorizing them or, as it is sometimes called, by sight. Helping the child transfer his knowledge of known words to the learning of new words will be discussed in the next section.

### *Helping the Child Acquire Sound-Symbol Relationships*

If a child has learned a few words which he recognized at sight, he has learned the rudiments of sound-symbol relationships. What the child must acquire, however, is an understanding of phoneme-grapheme correspondence so that he does not have to learn each new word he encounters as a "sight word." What the teacher should attempt to do is lead the child to the point where the child is able to make generalizations about the sound-letter relationships of our language.

The knowledge of sound-letter relationships as it relates to reading and spelling is usually called phonics. Unfortunately, because of the variety of approaches and materials available in this area, and the differing viewpoints, phonics remains somewhat of a mystery for many teachers. Two prerequisites, auditory and visual discrimination, must be considered since

the integration of these skills, as they relate to the sounds of letters of English, results in phonics knowledge.

Normal children acquire the ability to discriminate among similar sounds at a very early age; if they didn't they could not communicate orally. They do not, however, discriminate among isolated phonemes which they are often (probably mistakenly) required to do in some phonics activities. The child's auditory discriminations have been made among words in the context of other words and the ability to discriminate among isolated words requires some training, but most children learn this kind of activity quickly. Most kindergarten children can learn to do the kinds of auditory discrimination exercises found in reading readiness tests quite easily and they will do them very well.

Normal children have also acquired the ability to discriminate among visually similar figures like words and letters by the age of four. The ability to discern differences among words which are visually similar is a problem for only a very few first-grade children.

Both auditory and visual discrimination skills are necessary before the children learn phoneme-grapheme correspondences. Then the child should be led to integrate these auditory and visual skills. For example, consider the child who has learned the words *father*, *for*, *food*, and *fun* and has been led to see the relationship between the initial sound and initial letter of each word. If that same child has learned *at*, *cat*, *sat*, *mat* and *rat* and has also been led to see the relationship between the sound and the letters *at*, then, hopefully when the child encounters *fat* for the first time he will be able to decode it or say it by himself. This is an example of how children should be guided to transfer learning.

This type of teaching is predicated on a fundamental principle of psychology which allows the child to arrive at generalizations and then apply the generalizations in learning. There are a number of ways of doing this in phonics instruction, but perhaps one of the best is through the use of spelling patterns and word families.

In the structuring of phonics exercises it is important to consider the child's ability to articulate sounds. Those which develop late such as the sounds represented in writing by *r* and *l* perhaps should be delayed in favor of speech sound developed early-- those represented in writing by *b*, *d*, *m*, *n*, *t*, *p*, and *s*, for example.

Three aspects of the child's language as they relate to beginning reading instruction have been discussed here. It is this writer's belief that the efforts of classroom teachers to apply knowledge of the child's language acquisition to the teaching of reading will improve student achievement.

# FIELD BASED TEACHER EDUCATION PROMISE OR PROBLEM

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One of the most widely advocated recommendations for improving the teaching of methods courses is to put them in an elementary school setting. This should help to ensure that practice is related to theory. Although this is very desirable some questions arise concerning the organization and implementation of such a program. These questions center around three major areas:

- 1) cooperating teachers,
- 2) cooperating schools, and
- 3) evaluating effectiveness of students prepared in this way.

## *Cooperating Schools*

First let's consider the part played by the participating elementary school. A laboratory school is one possibility. One of the major criticisms made concerning a laboratory school is the fact that the pupil population is not typical of that which students will find in their actual teaching positions. Usually the pupils attending a laboratory school are above average in ability, so pre-service students do not get a true picture of an elementary school classroom. In turn, then, even though they will have practice tied in with theory, that practice will not be of great assistance when the student takes charge of his own classroom in a quite different environment.

A college or university lacking a laboratory school must seek assistance from one of the public schools in the community. This can present some major problems. First of all, both administrators and faculty members in the elementary school have to be willing to cooperate in such a venture. They are partners with the college or university in preparing these students for future teaching. Just as a laboratory school's population may be above average in ability, a public school, depending on its location may have an above average, average, or below average in ability population. In many city school systems the number of schools with children who function much below grade level placement is great. Is it desirable to send our students into these schools which present some of the greatest difficulties as well as the greatest challenges for teachers? Would it be better to expose them to more than one type of school so that they would become aware of existing differences? Would adjustment to their first teaching positions be

achieved more readily if they had opportunities to work in different schools?

### *Cooperating Teachers*

The cooperating teachers who staff these schools may vary widely in educational background, experience, teaching effectiveness, and willingness to cooperate in the preparation of teachers. It would be beneficial if it were possible to select schools in which there were only teachers who wished to participate in the program, and all those teachers were effective. Unfortunately there is no school in which all teachers can be classified as effective if for no other reason than the fact that there is no clear cut definition of what makes an effective teacher. Should the student be exposed to both effective and ineffective teachers? Would there be some benefit in seeing ineffective practices in operation?

Teachers in cooperating schools should be given a voice in whether or not they wish to participate in the pre-service preparation of teachers. This is not something which can be imposed from administrative level. In some cases teachers in cooperating schools are not compensated in any way for the contribution they make. It is true that there may be some satisfaction in seeing a job well done, but how many of us are willing to work solely for satisfaction?

### *Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Students in a Field Based Program*

Of the few studies which have been conducted to weigh the merits of the field-based program as opposed to a university-based one, not all have shown the field-based situation to be superior.

(Giannangelo, 1973) compared two approaches of teaching an undergraduate social studies methods course for elementary teachers. One group had pre-student teaching involvement with pupils in the social studies area while enrolled in a social studies methods course. A second group had no pre-student teaching involvement with pupils while enrolled in the social studies methods course. A control group had no social studies instruction or student teaching experience. The groups were compared in two areas: knowledge pertaining to the teaching of social studies and teaching proficiency in social studies during student teaching.

The students who completed the methods course had greater knowledge pertaining to teaching social studies than the students who did not take the course. Those students who spent time in the classrooms of elementary schools while taking the course had less knowledge pertaining to the teaching of social studies than students who spent no time in elementary classrooms. Finally there was no difference in the teaching proficiency of the students regardless of whether or not they had spent time working in elementary classrooms while taking the methods course.

It would seem that it is important for all students to take a social studies methods course. However, in this case, the field-based situation did not produce any better teachers and did seem to be somewhat less desirable as far as mastery of knowledge concerning teaching of social studies.



A recent study (Gray, 1973) had as its purpose the determination of the relative merits of preparing elementary reading teachers in a field-based program as contrasted with the merits of a university-based program. The pre-service students were asked to teach four reading lessons which they had developed from a list of four objectives supplied by their methods instructor. These lessons were taught during the last week of the semester. Pre and post tests were administered by the investigator and graduate students from the university.

The achievement of the pupils receiving instruction from the field-based group was no better than the achievement of pupils receiving instruction from the university-based group. In addition according to a specified form which was provided for writing lesson plans the university-based group wrote the better plans (those which made use of a wider variety of suitable materials and more varied learning experiences). A possible explanation for this may be due to the fact that the exposure to cooperating teachers influenced the plans of the field-based group. Most practicing teachers do not write very detailed plans, and most do not contain a statement of objectives. If the field-based students were exposed to teachers who relied rather heavily on the use of textbooks for all lessons, it is likely these students would adopt some of these practices. This would help to explain the lack of originality on their part.

Does this mean that classroom observation adversely affects the writing of lesson plans? Does it mean that writing lesson plans is unimportant as the end results of the lessons taught by both groups were not significantly different? Does it mean the opportunity to observe in elementary classrooms is not of benefit to pre-service students? If, indeed, there is no difference in the teaching effectiveness of the field-based and university-based groups maybe some rethinking should be done concerning the field-based programs being established in many colleges and universities.

A third study (Lahnston, Lapp, Rezba, and Willcutt, 1974) done at Boston University had as its purpose determining the effect of learning site on selected teacher training variables. Data was obtained in each of these domains to determine the effect of learning site on:

- 1) The attitude of the interns to the pre-service elementary teacher preparation block program and to teaching in general.
- 2) The attainment of cognitive skills in the teaching of science, reading-language arts, and social studies by the interns.
- 3) The use of teacher skills in the classroom by the interns.
- 4) The cognitive growth of pupils when instructed on specific tasks by interns (p. 5).

Number 4 of the above domains is similar to that used in the two previous studies discussed, so findings from that area will be presented. In this study there was significantly greater gain on the post test mean scores of the pupils taught by the field-based interns. Of the three studies discussed this is the only one in which the field based students exceeded the university-based students in teaching performance.

*Summary*

Many questions have been raised relating to the three areas listed at the beginning of this paper, and the answers to all of them are not immediately available. If, however, field-based programs are employed to provide pre-service training for our future teachers, the answers to these questions should be found and soon. The success or failure of these programs depends heavily on doing just that.

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# ECHOES FROM THE FIELD

## FOR YOUR INFORMATION:

The following is a list of International Reading Association regional and world meetings scheduled for the remainder of 1975 and much of 1976. Further information on any of these meetings may be obtained from the International Reading Association, 800 Barksdale Road, Newark, Delaware 19711, U.S.A.

Twenty-First Annual Convention May 11-14, 1976	Anaheim, California
Sixth World Congress on Reading August 17-19, 1976	Singapore, Republic of Singapore
First Atlantic Regional Conference October 9-11, 1975	Halifax, Nova Scotia
Second Transmountain Regional Conference November 14-15, 1975	Calgary, Alberta
First Great Lakes Regional Conference February 5-7, 1976	Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Fourth Southeastern Regional Conference February 19-21, 1976	Jacksonville, Florida
Sixth Southwest Regional Conference February 26-28, 1976	Oklahoma City, Oklahoma
Fourth Plains Regional Conference March 11-13, 1976	Wichita, Kansas
First Eastern Regional Conference March 11-13, 1976	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

# WE SUGGEST

*Eleanor Buelke*

Piaget, Jean

*To Understand Is To Invent*

New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1974. Pp. viii + 148.

The art of education is like the art of medicine: it is an art that cannot be practiced without special "gifts," but one that assumes exact and experimental knowledge relating to the human beings on whom it is exercised. This is not anatomical and physical knowledge . . . but psychological . . . and the solution to questions on the active school or on the formation of the mind depend on it in the most direct fashion.

This book by Piaget, renowned figure in the field of cognitive development, has been written specifically for the general reader. It consists of two texts written for UNESCO. One, "A Structural Foundation for Tomorrow's Education," is part of a series of studies prepared for the International Commission on the Development of Education. The other, "The Right to Education in the Present World," appears in *The Rights of the Mind* collection published by UNESCO.

In the first section, Piaget sets forth conditions of what he sees as actual problems of recent trends in education, and, further, reflects on thoughts for the future. He writes of attempts to reform pre-school education; reactionary changes at the primary level, leading to the strengthening and channeling of cognitive activities; experimental mathematics and science programs; and of the need for more interdisciplinary research in every field at secondary and university levels. He categorizes the results of psychological research in recent years in three "tendencies:"

1. Pursuance of empirical associationism, assigning an exterior origin to all knowledge, deriving it from experience, or representation of experience, controlled by adults;
2. Return to belief in factors of innateness and internal development, resulting in training innate reason as the main function of education; and
3. Affirmation of intelligence as a continuous surpassing of successive stages, placing all educational stress on spontaneous aspects of the learner's activity.

This third tendency is descriptive of Piaget's own theories and "recognizes

neither external preformations (empiricism) nor immanent preformations (innateness . . . )”

Piaget comments that to implement the implications of research into desirable educational prospects for future needs of society requires a complete revision of the methods and aims of education. There need to be new relations between human and natural sciences— a general lowering of barriers between the two— allowing for “the opening of a generous number of side doors which would allow university as well as secondary school students to pass freely from one section to another.” Though many have talked of interdisciplinary needs, the inertia of established systems has tended to create a multi-disciplinary situation in education at all levels. However, in his experiments at Geneva, Piaget has found it educationally possible, and profitable, to organize and utilize mobile interdisciplinary groups in (a) a close union of training and research, and (b) team research which was supervised not by a single professor, but by representatives of neighboring fields working together. He believes it imperative that these combinations remain operative if “the fatal role of the schools is to be reduced.”

Piaget prefaces the second section of this volume with an acknowledgement that he is by no means a professional educator, “but rather a psychologist led by his research to study the problems of the formation of man.” Here, he addresses himself to five obligations of society and social goals of education: every person has the right to education; education shall be free; parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children; education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms; and, education shall promote understanding, tolerance, and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

Concerning the first obligation, Piaget’s view of education is not a restricted vista of a simple contribution superimposed on top of individual development, regulated in some inborn way, or by the family; but as part of a whole, a great responsibility of the school to assist the individual to develop normally, in accord with all the potential he possesses. Moreover, he believes schools should assume the obligation of *not destroying or spoiling* possibilities an individual may have that might benefit society, of *not allowing the loss or smothering* of other important abilities.

Piaget admits the complexity and seriousness of the problems brought out by the declaration: “education shall be free . . .” He groups them around three principles:

1. Assuring continuance of school attendance independent of economic conditions of the family;
2. Reconciling adequate general culture with a professional specialization; and
3. Assuring the student a full and complete physical, intellectual, and

ethical formation, while orienting him toward his own aptitudes.

He suggests that grants in aid for secondary and higher education not be limited just to specially gifted students. They should not be considered acts of generosity on the state's part, but, rather, society's responses to one of its specific obligations. Reiterating his belief that the various activities of man form an indissoluble whole, he maintains that education must consolidate the different practical, technical, scientific, and artistic aspects of social intercourse. For fullest satisfaction during teaching and learning, he promotes the practice of consistent, continual close association between pedagogical and psychological analysis.

This author believes the prior right of parents "to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children" is valid because, in all known societies, the family, despite its apparent structural transformations, still remains a basic cog in the social structure. He supports and encourages methods leading to closer relationships between school affairs and the life and concerns of parents.

In the section of the book concerned with education for the full development of the personality the writer makes an eloquent, earnest plea for free exercise of personal reasoning power. Full development in areas of both logic and ethics depends upon the whole group of emotional, ethical, or social relationships that make up school life. Growth in *unilateral respect*, a strong, independent ego, and *reciprocity*, mutual respect for the rights and freedoms of others, can develop only in a learning atmosphere of freedom for investigation and the "lived" experience. Outside of this, "any acquisition of human values is only an illusion."

In the realm of international education for "understanding, tolerance, and friendship," the lack of models of perfection makes the task difficult and delicate. International social reality constitutes something relatively new and very hard to understand. Nations and their leaders are still struggling to find and to test proper intellectual tools and ethical attitudes to use in solving their mutual problems. Piaget sees uncertainties of international life as being affected by the same two characteristics that influence individual growth—egocentric judgments and conflicts of reciprocity, with similar solutions being required, i.e., active methods and research in common on an international level. Difficulties which characterize problems of international relationships are those which characterize the human spirit in general. Human understanding must precede human invention of solutions "for the maintenance of peace."

The educational importance of mutual respect and of the methods founded on the spontaneous social organization of the children among themselves is precisely to permit them to work out a discipline where the necessity is discovered in action itself, instead of being received ready-made before being able to be understood. And this is why the active methods give an equally invaluable service in ethical

education as in the education of the mind. They intend to lead the child to construct for himself the tools that will transform him from the inside — that is, in a real sense and not only on the surface.

# READING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

*Kenneth VanderMeulen*

## *High School Teachers and Research in Reading*

Recently a teacher at a reading institute asked a member of a panel on teaching reading, "Just what innovations in teaching reading may we look for in the coming years?" The panel member was hesitant, saying there are individual ideas for improved strategies coming out in published form every season, but that he could not espouse a single method as being superior. The teacher who asked the question was obviously not satisfied, still convinced as she was that some theory or new piece of machinery could be her salvation in the classroom. That the panel member was disappointing in his answer was not of great consequence, but the fact that some groundwork *might have been* laid for an important branch of reading research is of much more importance.

What is missed and badly needed is the kind of research work in each classroom that adds basis to (or refutes) the ideas and theories which are published in papers, texts, and workbooks every week of every school year. We actually are performing a disservice to our students when we listen to or read somebody's ideas on teaching reading, and then go back to our classes and employ the methods as if they were infallible. That is about as useless as refusing to allow anyone's ideas on the subject into one's mind. In both instances, we are remaining blind to the requirements of critical thinking, to the definition of professionalism, and to the need for adapting new ideas to our individual natures.

How can we avoid this often voiced criticism, that we high school teachers tend to take one of the two extremes; to reject out-of-hand ideas that have come from theorists, or to take ideas in the teaching of reading as if they were prescriptions and use them without the addition of an iota of imagination? One, we can stop to realize that all important improvements started with ideas, with theories. Second, we can remember that teachers are at least as different as students—that what works in your classroom may not work in mine, because there are so many variables. Thus, to put ideas to use and make a contribution to the total area of teaching reading at the same time, each teacher should think of himself as a researcher in reading.

The usual response to a suggestion that the auto mechanics teacher or the English teacher become a researcher is a hoarse "Wha—? Research? Me?" Along with expletives, one normally hears remarks about not caring for statistics, or that research is dull, dry stuff.



Yet, when we consider our methods of teaching in each class hour we have to conclude that most of the approaches we employ to bring about the necessary objectives in effective teaching are the results of research

learned from texts or lectures. If we admit to doing some experimenting in our classes, and almost all good teachers do, we tend to call it trial-and-error. Now it is time for every teacher to look carefully at the possibility of making contributions to reading improvement through using some of the devices or tools of research.

One of the basic tenets of professionalism requires that a person learn as much as possible about what has been found to be true in his field of endeavor. If teachers, who are well versed in their content areas, wish to be truly professional about the process by which students learn to master those content courses, they should read and utilize what has been found to be true about reading and study skills development during the past few decades. Much is being learned and described in print by the leaders in research at learning centers and laboratory schools. And the rate at which research materials on reading is appearing is accelerating. By the end of World War Two, a little over twenty-five hundred studies on reading were in print. In the next ten years, over a thousand studies about various aspects of reading were published. The following decade saw the publication of well above two thousand studies, of which a sizable proportion dealt with high school and junior high reading and teaching reading in the content areas. The totals are not in as we come to the end of another ten years, but it is safe to say that even more attention has been paid to the reading problems of the secondary school in research reports.

However, unless teachers in the classrooms become the consumers and users of these multitudes of research studies with their recommendations, there will be no changes made, and all of us will be doomed to go down the years making the same series of errors over and over. The void that exists between the researcher and the professional classroom teacher can only be removed by the judicious choice of recommendations from a few reputable researchers, a tentative utilization of some of the ideas, *and* a careful and accurate report of the circumstances, observation, and conclusions shared by each classroom teacher involved.

If, as was suggested earlier, each teacher regards himself as a part of the total professional research team, out to learn the best approaches to solving education's many problems—reading failures may become obsolete in our schools. By casting oneself in this different role from the routine classroom teacher, one may see the concepts in rather new ways.

The four objectives we need to consider for ourselves are: 1) we should become aware of the sources of materials of research at the secondary level; 2) we should make ourselves more understanding and critical about research in reading; 3) we should learn to recognize the importance and benefits of research; and, 4) we should see ourselves as researchers, and communicate our ideas and findings with colleagues.

To avoid losing our way to misunderstandings from the outset we must

see research as having two definitions. One part of the definition describes research as experimentation in order to discover new facts or new interpretations of formerly held theories. The other part of the definition sees research as applying the new or revised theories, and checking the validity of the ideas expressed. In the first, we originate ideas for improved teaching of reading. In the latter, we use the idea in part or totally, so that we may test it, observe the idea in practical settings, and draw some professional conclusions about the idea—contributing important data to the destiny of that idea, law, theory, or whatever.

And, while we are mentioning a few of the ground rules for this fascinating game of research, let us remember the criteria—objectivity, diligence, and comprehensiveness. Regarding objectivity, we must avoid deciding in advance what the outcome of the experiment will be. If we read D. H. Cohen's article "The Effect of Literature on Vocabulary and Reading Achievement" in *Elementary English* (Feb., 1968), for instance, and we wish to repeat the study at the secondary level, we need to restrain our thoughts about similar or opposite results. Diligence requires performing the same little experiment enough times, with sufficient uniformity, to make quite sure of outcomes. Louis Pasteur expressed the epitome for diligence in research when he said to his students, "The gentlemen may ask you to prove yourself right; but I say to you—try to prove yourself *wrong*!"

Being comprehensive means using one's judgment about the limits of a study. Take a small part, but be complete about it. That's all there is to it. If you see reading as all one act, you are not ready to do research. If you recognize that reading is visual, neurological, experiential, emotional, auditory, intellectual, and social (and we haven't exhausted that list), you might be interested in looking into what's been written about one of these areas. And again, each area will be divided into causes, effects, uses of, the act of, factors involved in, and *these* may be too general.

The most basic and by far the most edifying way to conduct classroom research is to attempt a duplication of someone's previous findings. Try to set up similar conditions (noting accurately wherein the circumstances are perceptibly different), recording as much of the local data as possible, so that your findings can be precise, even if not similar. You should remember that repeating a study is valuable as verifying research, since all research should be subject to replication. Don't allow yourself to downgrade or belittle the results of your classroom research.

Many teachers hesitate to do classroom research because they are intimidated by the complexity of statistical requirements and the shadow of the computer. The researcher who is wise in his design or plan of research is much more important than such service as the computer can render. Anyway, oftentimes research may be made up entirely of the teacher's observations of cases over a period of time, leading to conclusions totally without statistics.

We mentioned the necessity of an attitude of appreciation for the importance of research. The fact is that we would still be in the dark ages in reading were it not for the findings of researchers. We learned about eye

movements and span of fixations through optometric measurement research. Researchers taught us the importance of silent reading. Research is helping us to avoid some serious errors by testing and reporting on the gadgets and gimmicks which profiteers put on the market.

The need for research at the secondary level should be known to all high school teachers. Teachers would be rendering service to the field by looking carefully into such questions as: What factors are causative in students' attitudes toward reading in science (or math, social science, etc.)? How can we measure student interpretation? What methods promote critical reading? How can we teach reading in content courses? Other topics of interest to researchers relate to motivation of students, reaction of students to varying teacher approaches, how students use reading, what are the effects of using various supplemental reading materials, interests of students, building reading programs, and teaching vocabulary. Since good research usually originates from and centers around a specified problem, it seems to this writer that we have a veritable plethora of possible starting points at the secondary level. Sometimes the results of a research study will themselves suggest other needs for investigation and identification of problems to study. The report by Dr. Roger Applebee to the National Council of Teachers of English in the late 60's that literature was given ten times as much attention as the process of reading caused much research and rethinking by administrators who assumed that English teachers *are* reading teachers.

Remember, however, that you should remain critical as you read the research summaries and recommendations of others. Ask yourself why this particular piece of research was undertaken. Did the writer have a genuine problem which needed to be seen more clearly, or was the problem only that the writer needed to do some research for the sake of his position, promotion, or prestige? Look carefully at the reason for the reading research.

When you have found a set of several research summaries that are relevant to your situation and interests, you may be moved to write your own problem, plan, and hypothesis. You might discuss the problem with a friend over coffee, try to get second opinions, and ask for advice (which may lead to your plan and a statement of hypothesis). Try to remember that research is no more than a technical word describing Yankee pragmatism—a calculating person who looks at his problem, and says, "I wonder what would happen if I were to. . . ."

Finally, where should one look in order to read about some of the thousands of research studies made in the field of reading? Obviously, the most efficient way to become conversant with the questions and answers in the field is to put oneself on the mailing list of the International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware, 19711; the National Reading Conference, or the Claremont Annual Reading Conference.

Probably the quickest way to learn what is being said and written in the area is to find the nearest university which has the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) facility. If geography or economics prevents

joining the former or traveling to the latter, another recourse is to find and purchase for the school professional shelf a few excellent books on what has been and is being learned about teaching secondary reading. Basic books such as Albert J. Harris' *How to Increase Reading Ability*, Arthur Heilman's *Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading*, and Smith and Dechant's *Psychology of Teaching Reading* should be part of every high school inservice library.

Other books which refer to studies and research in reading at the secondary level are: Burmeister, Lou, *Reading Strategies for Secondary School Teachers*; Hafner, Lawrence, *Improving Reading in Middle and Secondary Schools*; Karlin, Robert, *Teaching Reading in High School*; Shepherd, David, *Comprehensive High School Reading Methods*; Thomas, Ellen, and H. Alan Robinson, *Improving Reading in Every Classroom*.

# READING PROGRAMS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL A CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATION

*H. L. Narang*

UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

Reading is a fundamental skill necessary for success in school. (It is also important for preparation for college and for vocation). Every job whether in the home, school, office, factory or farm requires some type of reading. For an effective participation in a democratic society reading is all the more important for every citizen. Of course, even for pleasure and entertainment reading has certain unique advantages over other media because the reader is free from outside control or pressure, in terms of choosing his material, time and place to read. In short, competence in reading is essential for success and satisfaction in academic, social, political, vocational, and personal life of the modern man.

Reading is, however, a complex process which involves a large number of skills. Burkart (2) in her study mentioned 214 reading skills. Although there is no agreement on the number of skills the fact is that all the skills cannot be taught in the primary grades. There are many skills which are taught in the intermediate grades and several which are extended and reinforced at the junior and senior high school levels. Reading is thus a continuous process which permeates all grades in the school and goes beyond it.

At the secondary level content reading takes most of the class time. Students have to learn the specialized vocabulary and concepts of each subject-matter area. They have to learn study skills and flexibility of reading rate. Content area teachers can provide an effective program if they share the responsibility of teaching reading skills in their respective fields.

Many teachers suggest that if a sound basal program is provided in the classroom children will learn to transfer reading skills to the content areas on their own. Such a transfer, however, does not take place automatically. Students have to be taught how they can apply their skills to other subjects. Another important fact is that although there are some skills common to all areas each area also requires some specific reading skills. Content area teachers have, therefore, a special role in the teaching of reading.

Another factor which necessitates the teaching of reading at the secondary level is the use of a single textbook for all students in the

classroom. There is a wide range of reading ability in any classroom. Expecting every student to finish the same textbook in about the same time and be able to perform at the same level with others is against the principles of educational psychology. Moreover, textbooks used in the high school are generally difficult for a large number of students. Beldon and Lee (1) examined the readability level of five science textbooks for secondary schools and discovered that one-third to one-half of the students expected to use them found them difficult. Until suitable textbooks are produced and made available it is imperative that teachers develop necessary skills in students to get the most out of their assigned books.

Lack of reading ability in teenagers is responsible for high rate of dropouts as established by Penty (5). Reading failure may also lead to delinquent behavior. In most cases young adults have the potential and with a proper program of instruction can improve their ability.

What kinds of reading programs can a secondary school offer to meet the needs and abilities of its students? The literature identifies the following four programs:

1. *Developmental Reading Program*: In this program reading instruction is carried out in a sequential manner in all grades.
2. *Corrective Reading Program*: In this program students who have minor difficulties in reading are grouped together for special help within the framework of regular classroom instruction.
3. *Remedial Reading Program*: In this program students who have serious difficulties in reading and are reading below their capacity are taught, generally outside the classroom and on individual basis using diagnostic and remediation techniques.
4. *Reading Improvement for the College-Bound*: In this program special instructions are provided in vocabulary growth, comprehension, critical reading, study skills, and rate of reading for students who show academic promise.

Because of the pressure of accountability schools are asking how they can assess their reading programs in order to determine the changes necessary for improvement. One most comprehensive and frequently used instrument for secondary school evaluation is the *Evaluative Criteria* (3). However, it contains only a few questions on reading programs and does not really provide a complete evaluation in this area.

One weakness of the *Evaluative Criteria* as well as of the proposed checklist is the subjective nature of some questions. It is difficult to lay down exactly what is meant by "adequate" or "satisfactory." It is hoped that the evaluator would use his judgment in answering the checklist. However, the questions have been so designed that the answer expected in each case is either "yes" or "no." Another feature of the checklist is its conciseness. Teachers, consultants, and principals generally prefer simple and quick instruments which do not take too much of their time. The proposed checklist is quite concise and quick.

One important area which the evaluator must keep in mind is the school philosophy and the needs of the community it is supposed to serve. As

pointed out by the *Junior High School/Middle School Evaluative Criteria* (4), "the philosophy and objectives of a school should determine the nature of its program." It is important to know the composition of the community, occupational and educational status of the people, the economic climate, and vocational interests and aspirations of the community. Some communities may be more interested in supporting a vocational and technical program than an academic program. They may not favor a program meant for the college-bound.

Similarly, the philosophy and objectives of a school will influence the kinds of programs it offers. The staff of a certain school may believe that reading instruction stops at grade 6 or that teaching reading is the responsibility of the English teachers only, or that only remedial reading should be taught in secondary school in special classes by special teachers. On the other hand a school may specify one of its objectives as helping each student read at his capacity level or teaching him to vary his reading speed according to his purpose of reading and the nature of the material to be read. In other words, some schools may believe that reading is a responsibility of the entire faculty and some may be opposed to this idea.

The checklist that follows has five sections. The first section requires a statement of school philosophy and objectives related to reading instruction and the other sections contain questions about various aspects of the program. Space for major strengths, weaknesses and recommendations is also provided.

### CHECKLIST FOR EVALUATION

- I. *School Philosophy and Objectives: (Related to Reading Instruction)*
  
- II. *Organization and Facilities:*

	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Comments</i>
1. Is it a 7-12 or 10-12 sequential developmental program?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
2. Does the program emphasize the following:			
(a) Basic Reading Skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
(b) Study Skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
(c) Content Area Reading Skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
(d) Recreational Reading	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
3. Does the school provide the following types of program:			
(a) Corrective (for those with minor difficulties)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
(b) Remedial (for those with serious difficulties)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
(c) Reading Improvement (for those with academic promise)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

- |   |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 4. Are physical facilities and supplies in the school library or resource center adequate?  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Is there an adequate supply of materials and equipment for corrective and remedial work? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

III. *Staff:*

- |   |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Do the teachers have adequate training for teaching reading at their level(s)?             | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Are they receptive to change?  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Do they keep abreast of recent trends through inservice opportunities or intervisitations? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Are they encouraged for innovations and experimentation?                                   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

IV. *Pupils:*

- |   |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Are they given opportunities to relate reading with other language skills? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Are they being continuously evaluated?                                     | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Are they developing permanent interests and tastes in reading?             | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

V. *Parents:*

- |   |                          |                          |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Are they familiar with the reading programs?   | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Are they given opportunities to participate in various phases of the reading programs? | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Are they encouraged to express their opinions and make recommendations?                | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

*Major Strengths*



*Major Weaknesses*

*Recommendations*

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1. Beldon, Bernard and Wayne Lee. "Textbook Readability and Reading Ability of Science Students." *Science Teacher*, Vol. 29 (1962), 20-23.
2. Burkart, Kathyron. "An Analysis of Reading Abilities." *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol. 38 (1945), 430-439.
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*Round Robin is a forum intended for our readers' use to express or comment on any topical subject affecting the field of reading. Send your letters or comments to Dorothy E. Smith, Round Robin Editor.*



***Dorothy E. Smith, Editor***

We all have been hearing more and more about “SSR”—the daily period of Sustained Silent Reading that is observed in some cases, by *everyone* in a school building (even the janitor). Enthusiasm is growing for this activity, and we are expecting to begin hearing people’s reactions. Here is a letter from Shirley Madsen that you might find quite interesting, especially if you are using SSR or are contemplating instituting it in your classes.

Dear Mrs. Smith,

I am wondering how much response you may have gotten to the article, “The S.S. Reading: Does it Float?” in the Winter issue. Last fall, I administered tests to all students in the junior high school. The seventh grade teacher whose room is next to mine had some 15 students who tested below grade level, and asked me what he could do to help them. I suggested that he borrow some of my low level reading materials and try SSR daily. Four months later he wanted to have them re-tested. I did administer the post test, but decided we might find out more if we also re-tested another 7th grade class. The results are attached. I don’t have enough background in statistics to know if the difference is significant, but it does indicate that the SSR class did better in this instance. I also recognize that there are too many variables such as class size, lack of knowledge about IQs, etc.

Helena Junior High School test of Sustained Silent Reading  
Test: *Nelson Reading Test*, Forms A and B  
Pre test date: September 12, 1974  
Post test date: January 13, 1975

Both classes were seventh grade students, with young, male teachers and both met during the second period every day. The first class (marked SSR) had a period of sustained silent reading of between 10 and 20 minutes daily. The other class had no such period, although they did some silent reading of social studies materials.

	SSR	No. SSR
Number of students	24	28
Number of students showing gain in vocabulary	20	18
Number of students showing gain in comprehension	17	17
Number of students showing gain in "Total"	19	17
Number of students showing loss in vocabulary	3	9
Number of students showing loss in comprehension	6	6
Number of students showing loss in "Total"	4	8
Number of students with no change in vocabulary	1	1
Number of students with no change in comprehension	1	5
Number of students with no change in "Total"	1	3
Average gain, of those showing gain in vocabulary	1.15	.9
Average gain, of those showing gain in comprehension	1.3	1.4
Average gain, of those showing gain in "Total"	1.25	1.5
Total average gain (gain minus loss) in vocabulary	.8	.36
Total average gain (gain minus loss) in comprehension	.71	.68
Total average gain (gain minus loss) in "Total"	.85	.5

Shirley Madsen  
 Helena Junior High School  
 1025 N. Rodney  
 Helena, Montana

# TEN-SECOND REVIEWS

**Betty L. Hagberg**

"Love for reading is not taught, it is created; not required, but inspired; not demanded, but exemplified, not exacted, but quickened; not solicited, but activated." — Russell G. Stauffer

Abrams, Jules C., "Minimal Brain Dysfunction and Dyslexia," *Reading World*, (March, 1975), 14:219-227.

Abrams points out that there is much evidence which indicates the tremendous importance of psychogenic factors in determining how well a child will learn and the significance of these factors in the cause of reading disability. Throughout the article he uses the terms specific learning disability (SLD), specific reading disability (SRD), and minimal brain dysfunction (MBD) interchangeably since he is interested in a comprehensive understanding of the problem. The author discusses an ego approach to minimal brain dysfunction, characteristics of MBD, dyslexia (a specific form of MBD), and modes of therapeutic intervention for MBD. He concludes by indicating that relationships with people—parents, siblings, relatives, peers, well-meaning acquaintances, and teachers have contributed to children's severe reading problems. Abrams feels that without looking at this crucial aspect when planning a reeducational program that instructional techniques will have little value or impact. Contacts with the child must be personal and sincere if the youngster is to experience success in reading.

Allington, Richard L., "Improving Content Area Instruction in the Middle School," *Journal of Reading*, (March, 1975), 18:455-461.

Allington states that the primary task facing the middle school teacher is aiding student transition from the skills oriented primary reading program to the content oriented secondary curriculum. The middle school teacher must extend student abilities with decoding and comprehension skills and teach them to effectively apply reading skills to the content subjects. The author emphasizes that the middle school teacher is concerned with continued skill development rather than mastery of content. He presents four types of instructional variables to be considered and suggestions for supplementary instruction.

Anderson, William W., "Evaluation of College Reading and Study Skills Programs, Problems and Approaches," *Reading World*, (March, 1975), 14:191-197.

This article brings together some of the most outstanding and significant research in recent years relating to the problems of evaluating college reading and study skills programs and the corresponding implications for improvement. Anderson discusses what the research literature seems to reflect, and that is: 1) the need for more adequate criterion measures of program success; 2) for improved measurement tools; 3) for more appropriate statistical design of evaluative studies; and, 4) for greater attention to affective variables in evaluation. In his summary, the author presents four optimistic conclusions concerning college reading improvement programs.

Barr, Rebecca, "Influence of Reading Materials On Response To Printed Words," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Summer, 1975), 7:121-135.

Beginning reading materials often differ in the words included in stories. Most texts use a limited number of words that vary in length and pattern. Reading materials for phonics or linguistic instruction tend to have more words that are similar. This investigation explores the effect of word characteristics on children's responses to printed words.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P., "Six Creative Reading Programs," *The Reading Teacher*, (March, 1975), 28:561-564.

The development of creative dynamic reading programs is being encouraged by awarding ESEA Title II "mini-grants" for reading. Six of the creative programs these grants generated in New Haven, Connecticut, schools are described briefly in this article. The main thrust of these grants is on the development of programs which will motivate children to read. Articles in journals often describe "should do" programs. The six programs in this article are "did do" programs. They are: The Play's The Thing; Reading For Life; Project REACH; and, The Reading Garden. These creative reading programs can be easily adapted in other schools.

Dawkins, John, *Syntax and Readability*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1975.

This monograph provides a basic discussion of the general nature of syntactic complexity. It describes how rules of language produce complex syntax and raises questions about reading difficulty. The processes which produce sentences varying in com-

plexity are described. Writing and research questions on easy to read syntax, applications and conclusions are discussed.

Harker, John W., "Materials for Problem Readers: Why Aren't They Working?" *Journal of Reading*, (March, 1975), 18:451-454.

A large number of materials designed to help slow readers were developed upon recognition of special reading problems encountered by high school students. These materials have a variety in their format and content. They appeal to the tastes and interests of adolescents. Despite the widespread use of these special materials, reading problems still persist. The author expresses an opinion that teachers recognize the need not only for developing motivation but implementing this motivation by teaching the reading skills necessary for successful reading.

Hildreth, Gertrude H., "Which Way In Spelling Reform?", *Spelling Progress Bulletin*, No. Hollywood, California, [Spring, 1975], pp. 14-16.

The English spelling reform movement seems to be a choice between a new system of regularized spelling using our 26-letter alphabet without the addition of new letter forms, or a new system for permanent adoption with sufficient augmentation of the Roman letters with one symbol to a given sound. Both proposals need critical appraisal, for the welfare of future generations of readers and writers is the main consideration before adoption of either scheme.

Huslin, Ronald A., "What's Happening In College and University Developmental Reading Programs: Report of a Recent Survey," *Reading World*, (March, 1975), 14:202-218.

This study presents current information regarding the policies and practices in college developmental reading courses. Information is given on: the number of schools which offer developmental reading courses for academic credit; various titles used for these courses; the length of the courses; the department affiliation; the system of grading and evaluation criteria; the number of students enrolled annually; the reading courses being required or optional; and, the textbooks used to teach college developmental reading. Huslin sent questionnaires to 280 four-year colleges and universities and received a 63% response. He hopes this survey will yield a more complete accounting of such courses.

Johns, Jerry L., "Dolch List of Common Nouns—A Comparison," *The Reading Teacher*, (March, 1975), 28:538-540.

Johns' study was undertaken to compare Dolch's list of common nouns to four recently published word lists. It must be kept in mind that most studies involving frequency counts have some error associated with them and that several words indentified as nouns may also function as other parts of speech, depending upon the context in which they are found. With these cautions in mind, the comparison did result in a short list of nouns which do recur often and are worthy of teaching as sight words.

Lucas, Marilyn S. and Harry Singer, "Dialect In Relation To Oral Reading Achievement: Recoding, Encoding, or Merely A Code?", *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Summer, 1975), 7:137-148.

The Gates-McKillop Reading Test, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, and the Children's Apperception Test were administered in grades one and three, to 30 Mexican-American children. A scale was also used to rate bilingualism in their homes. In the third grade results indicated a negative correlation between degree of Spanish in the home to syntactic ability and a positive correlation between syntactic ability and oral reading. Direct relationship between Spanish in the home and oral reading was minimal. The evidence indicates that dialect interferes in oral reading on syntax but not on the speech sounds. The interference is likely to diminish as Mexican-American children become more competent in English syntax.

Walker, Laurence, "Newfoundland Dialect Interference In Oral Reading," *Journal of Reading Behavior*, (Spring, 1975), 7:61-78.

That dialect differences interfere with the acquisition of literacy skills is a hypothesis still unproven, based on the research into the relationship between Black English and reading. Evidence relative to the hypothesis was sought by studying the oral reading performance of third grade students in Newfoundland where a distinct dialect prevails. Material using standard English and material containing structures of the local dialect were used to compare the oral reading performances of students. The interference hypothesis was not supported as significant differences favoring the Standard English readings were revealed for three measures of oral reading proficiency. It showed language flexibility of dialect speakers in the third grade and pointed out that written language ability cannot be based on oral reading performances.

## NEW PUBLICATIONS . . . .

Burie, Audrey Ann and Mary Ann Heltshe, *Reading With a Smile: 90 Reading Games That Work*. Washington, D.C., 1975. 200 pp., \$9.95.

In *Reading With a Smile*, 90 child-tested games can be found. Included are the specific skills each game teaches, a list of materials needed, precise directions, patterns, and variations that increases the number of games which can be made. Games for reading readiness, basic reading skills, and content-oriented reading are presented by sections in the book. For handy reference, a skill index to the games is included.

Cook, Cheri, "Unit I—Telephone and Telegraph," *Your Personal Business*, Syracuse, New York: New Readers Press, Division of Laubach Literacy, Inc., 1975.

"Telephone and Telegraph, Unit I" is the first unit available in a new series entitled *Your Personal Business*. The series is rich in practice of survival learning and the consumable units can be used to develop language arts and problem-solving skills along with competence in the subject area. The first unit is 80 pages long and written at the 3.4 reading level as measured by the Spache formula. The lessons give how-to tips and consumer information. Exercises provide skills practice in reading, writing, oral communication, computation and problem solving.

Elwood, Ann and John Raht, *Points of View*, New York, New York: Globe Publishing Co., 1975.

This new high-interest, easy-reading text for junior and senior high classes has controlled 4.5 reading level as measured by the Fry Readability Formula. Story subjects that will hold the young reader's attention are told in groups of 2 or 3 short selections from 2 or 3 different points of view. Skill building and vocabulary comprehension and discussion questions, and illustrations place emphasis on the understanding to be gained. A teaching guide is available.

Glover, John A. and Albert L. Gary, *Behavior Modification: Enhancing Creativity and Other Good Behaviors*. Pacific Grove, California: The Boxwood Press, 1975. 135 pp.

This book presents a brief sketch of behavior modification for students who have not had considerable exposure to experimentally



orientated psychological training. It is an introduction to the theory of behavior modification, emphasizing identifying and enhancing creative behavior rather than "firefighting" nasty behaviors. Techniques are given in detail, including a section on the developing of reading in "non-readers."

Mallett, Jerry J., *Reading Skills Activity Cards*, The Center For Applied Research In Education, Inc., 1975.

This reading aid is divided into eight developmental reading skills areas: sight word knowledge, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, literal comprehension, interpretive comprehension, critical reading, creative reading and reading in the content areas. Thirty activities are provided for each area in a sequential manner, from easiest to more difficult. They range on a continuum from the third-grade to the eighth-grade reading level.

Miller, Wilma H., *The Reading Diagnosis Kit*, New York, New York: The Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1975.

This is a new aid put together in one package to pinpoint the causes of reading problems in the elementary grades. The kit gives details of most of the major formal and informal diagnostic devices now in use, directions for using each of these techniques, and actual diagnostic tests which can be used to identify specific reading disabilities of an individual, small group, or entire class.

Nemeth, Joseph S., *Reading Rx: Better Teachers, Better Supervisors, Better Programs*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1975.

Here is a book intended to aid in the improvement of teacher education. The 26 articles are presented in three sections: pre-service and in-service teacher training, the preparation and role of reading specialists and supervisors, and aspects of reading programs which will be developed by well-trained teachers and supervisors.

Nielson, Duane M. and Howard F. Hjelm, Editors, *Reading and Career Education* (Perspectives in Reading No. 19), Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1975.

The editors have selected articles which examine the growing concern with how reading prepares people for specific careers. The text examines the background of career education in the United States. Sixteen authors have contributed to the book's three sections. Viewpoints concerning reading requirements for career education and innovative programs supported by the U.S. Office of Education have been presented.

Rash, J. Keogh, *Pathways to Health Series*, New York, New York: Globe Book Company, Inc., 1975.

Pathways consists of six individually bound softcover texts with reading levels at grades four and five. The stories are easy to read, yet mature in appearance and content and are intended for the junior high school. The "case study" approach presents anecdotes about young people and their physical and mental health problems. Scientific subjects are treated simply but accurately. "Let's Talk It Over" questions and short summaries appear throughout the book with comprehension checks. Students are given an opportunity to express their own ideas and to reach their own decisions. Teaching guides are available.

Rauch, Sidney J. and Zacharie J. Clements, *World of Vocabulary: Book I*, New York, New York: Globe Book Company, Inc., 1974.

This new text-workbook was created for junior and senior high students who read below grade level. The idea is to give the underachiever a chance to work with really interesting words. The exercises are designed to enable the most reluctant learner to "get it right" over and over again. There are twenty lessons built around short, non-fiction reading selections at a grade three reading level. It contains high-interest subjects with ten new vocabulary words in each lesson which are carefully planned to ensure success.

Schulwitz, Bonnie S., Editor, *Teachers, Tangibles, Techniques: Comprehension of Content in Reading*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1975.

Most of these papers were chosen from the 1973 Denver Convention for their insights and practical applicability to classroom teaching. The volume is divided into four sections: factors affecting comprehension, human factors in teaching, the resources and materials of teaching, and creative techniques in teaching.

Searls, Evelyn F., *How to Use WISC Scores in Reading Diagnosis*, Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1975.

This is the latest volume in the Reading Aids series. It provides a concise summary of information about the WISC tests and their relation to reading skills. Descriptions of the tests and the conditions of their norming are also set forth. Twenty-five years of observations have been collected and reported by the author.

Turner, Richard H., *Real Experiences: Language In Everyday Use*, New York, New York: Globe Book Company, Inc., 1975. 118 pp.

Real Experiences is Book I in a new series especially geared to the needs of slow-to-average students in junior and senior high classes. The selections are written with a secondary-school interest level at a reading level of grades 4-5 as measured by the Dale-Chall Formula. The lessons deal with everyday, real-life situations that stress effective communication through thinking, speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Emphasis throughout the text is on "learning by doing." A teaching guide is available.

U.S. Office of Education, *Right To Read '75*, Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. (May, 1975) Volume 2, Number 1.

This is the first in a series of six bi-monthly reports on the National Right To Read effort. It presents an overview of the Right To Read today, discusses demonstration programs in effect, gives current data on the Right To Read states, and sets forth "Facts About The National Reading Improvement Program, Title VII." Points are given on what can be done in the critical thrust of involving the private sector in the elimination of illiteracy.

Weiman, Evelyn, Editor, *Reading Abstracts*, P.O. Box 2600, La Jolla, California, 92037: Essay Press, 1975.

*Reading Abstracts* is published twice a year in April and October. It is a periodical reference work which contains English-language abstracts of scholarly articles that are selected from the world's literature. Each issue contains: informative abstracts, author name index, subject index, Book Review index, books received, source publication index and diverse advertisements.

Wilson, Robert M. and Marcia M. Barnes, *Survival Learning Materials: Suggestions For Developing*, York, Pennsylvania: Strine Publishing Co., (College Reading Association), 1974. 51 pp.

The functional reading activities which are detailed in this publication are appropriate for students from the elementary level through adult education. Ideas for developing functional reading skills are offered by showing students "how to" read a map, read labels, locate information, fill out job applications, and many other practical ideas. The booklet is designed to provide starter ideas for teachers to use in developing their own packets. Procedures are given for getting started and it has been found that teachers expand on them easily.

